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# INSTRUCTION IN FRENCH UNIVERSITIES.

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO

INSTRUCTION IN PUBLIC LAW AND ECONOMICS IN  
THE LAW FACULTIES.

At no time in its history has the question of public instruction in France offered so much of interest as within recent years ; at no time have the changes been so sweeping, especially as regards higher, or university instruction. We hesitate to use the word "university" instruction, for, strictly speaking, there are no such institutions as "universities" in France. In order to understand the full significance of this fact, it is necessary to examine into the effects of the Revolution and the influence of Napoleon upon public instruction.

Before the Revolution no distinction was made between secondary and higher instruction. It was all given at the university : the preparatory instruction, Latin, Greek, Literature, Philosophy, and the Elements of the Sciences, in the Faculties of Art ; the professional or special instruction, Theology, Law, and Medicine, in the Faculties of Theology, Law, and Medicine. By the end of the First Empire, at which period the state had assumed the task of instruction in all its degrees, the higher institutions of learning may be classified as follows :

(1.) Special schools, devoted to a special science, and not including any other, except such as supplemented directly this special subject. The type of this class was what to-day is known as the "*École Polytechnique*." The Faculties of Theology, Law, and Medicine, in spite of their names, were special schools, completely isolated from each other.

(2.) The Faculties of Letters and of Sciences, where the instruction received was general in its character, forming

the continuation of the secondary instruction, and having no other aim than the general culture of the intellect.

(3.) Another category comprised such institutions as had no other end in view than the development of scientific knowledge, and the discovery of scientific truth. The *Collège de France* and the National Museum of Natural History furnish typical examples. As we shall have occasion to show, this classification would no longer be exact after the reforms which the Faculties have undergone.

### I.

The old University of France had been abolished, and in its place were established what are still known as the "Faculties." These were simply special schools, without the least inter-relation, either material or intellectual. The inevitable result was a gradual deterioration of all except the Faculties of Paris, where the intellectual vitality was always great. Each faculty, strictly limited in its curriculum to the science which it represented, was jealously guarded from any salutary influence which a sister Faculty, even in the same city, might exert. Every stimulus to progress was wanting. There was a total lack of any community of interests, of mutual exchange of ideas, or of cooperation. Another fact which contributed not a little to hasten the decline was that the Faculties of Letters and of Sciences had no students in our sense of the word. The absolute gratuity and publicity of the courses rendered the task of the professors very difficult in preparing lectures for a constantly changing audience, attracted, as it was, either by curiosity or by the desire for amusement, or even, as happened during the Restoration, by political sympathy or animosity. M. Ernest Renan, in a remarkable article upon "Higher Education in France," has described this state of affairs as follows:—"The doors were thrown wide open (*les portes furent ouvertes à deux battants*). The state, at certain hours, held open house for discourses upon science and literature. For an hour, twice a week, a professor ap-

peared before an audience which chance had formed, and which was very often composed, at two consecutive lessons, of different persons." This, together with the natural bent of the French intellect, caused the lectures at the Faculties of Letters\* and of Sciences to assume a certain character which they have preserved until the present day, modified, however, by the radical reforms of recent years, which we shall have occasion to notice hereafter. It is easy to see that the situation above described could not fail to banish from the lectures every idea of true science, of erudition, or of special research. The end which the professor was forced to have in view was to charm his audience, which, for the most part, came to him in search of agreeable emotions; an audience with an insatiable craving for novelty, which demanded for each lecture a subject completely treated, for each year a new course; and woe to him who fell short of these demands! With all its disadvantages, one is forced to admit, however, that this system produced a certain number of men who will always remain the glory and pride of the French Faculties. This was especially the case during the Restoration, when the brilliant examples of Guizot, in History, Villemain, in Literature, and Cousin, in Philosophy, dazzled the intellectual world. For over half a century they were looked upon as the ideals of a university professor. The efforts exerted and the talents wasted in trying to imitate these illustrious professors, to continue their traditions, and to recall their methods, would form one of the most curious chapters in educational history.

## II.

Before entering into the details of the reforms accomplished in each of the faculties, especially in the courses and methods of the law schools, it may be well to sketch rapidly the changes which have been brought about in the

\* The Faculty of Letters corresponds to the Faculty of Arts of an American University. It comprises the courses of History, Literature, Philosophy, Geography, Pedagogy, etc.

organization of the faculties, considered as an academic corps.

Previous to these reforms, the different faculties were almost completely excluded from the exercise of any control over the courses and the curriculum. The professors, instead of giving a general idea of their intended work for the year, were compelled to send to the Ministry of Public Instruction, and before it existed to the Educational Commission, an exact program, lesson by lesson, of their course. These programs were examined, and, if it was judged necessary, revised and corrected. Such revision was by no means rare, inasmuch as, until the end of the Second Empire, the faculties were regarded as the exponents of the ideas of the Government. The first step necessary in order to infuse some life into the different faculties was to accord them the liberty of instruction, and a certain independence in the choice and, above all, in the method and division of their courses. The decrees of 1885 (July 25 and December 28,) due to M. René Goblet, then Minister of Public Instruction, mark an immense advance in this respect—an advance two-fold in its nature:—

(1.) The decrees accorded to each one of the faculties, taken separately, the civil personality which they had possessed at their origin, but which had fallen into desuetude. This gave them the right to hold property. The main object seems to have been to establish closer relations between the faculties and the cities where they were situated. The municipality of Paris, for instance, gives annually 15,000 francs for the maintenance of paying scholarships and, furthermore, subsidizes a course upon the French Revolution at the Faculty of Letters, and another upon general Biology at the Faculty of Sciences. (2.) They brought about a thorough re-organization of the constitution of the faculties in their relations to each other, giving them a kind of charter. While each faculty was regarded, in a certain sense, as a complete and independent entity, it formed at the same time, a part of an organism, to the welfare of which all were supposed to

contribute. Although the decrees gave no name to this collective body, a special law being necessary to constitute a veritable university, the institutions established approach, nevertheless, very closely in character to real universities. In order to comprehend the full bearing of these reforms, it is necessary to dwell a moment upon the internal organization of the Faculties. The members, as is customary in academic bodies, fall into several categories, three in this instance, viz., (1) the titular professors; (2) those who are charged by the Faculty to deliver a course of lectures, (*chargé de cours*); (3) the *maître de conférences*, analogous, in many respects, to the "instructor" of an American university. In each Faculty we find two distinct groups: (1) the *Assembly of the Faculty*, which includes all those who, in any capacity, take part in the instruction given; (2) the *Council of the Faculty*, which is composed exclusively of the titular and adjunct professors. After establishing these two bodies, the decrees of the 28th of December, 1885, took a step further in creating closer relations between the different faculties of the same academic centre, by uniting them in a "General Council" (*Conseil Général des Facultés*). This is a sort of University Senate, an organ for the common interests of all the faculties. It is composed of the deans and representatives of the faculties and is presided over by the Rector of the Academy, who is the representative of the state. Its functions are: first, the co-ordination of the programs and courses of the different faculties in order to establish a certain harmony between them which will permit students in medicine to follow certain courses at the Faculty of Sciences; students of law to do the same at the Faculty of Letters or of Medicine, so that subjects of the same nature in the different sciences may be grouped together. The General Council has, farther, the administrative and financial oversight of the libraries and scientific collections, and lastly, it apportions amongst the different faculties the appropriations for higher education and superintends the preparation of the annual reports to the Minister of Public Instruction. It is only natural

that the deeply-rooted particularistic sentiment in the faculties, especially those of the smaller towns, should oppose itself to the realization of all the hopes which these reforms inspired. Nevertheless, the results have been very satisfactory and each year has brought with it a closer relationship between the faculties.

### III.

Before terminating this general sketch, it may be well to notice a question which has been occupying public attention and the press for the last few years, and which will shortly be brought before the Chamber of Deputies, a commission having framed and submitted a bill. This is the question of founding French universities in the true sense of the word. It must be remembered that the "University of France," as it was founded in 1808, was understood to include *all* the institutions of public instruction, whether primary, secondary, or devoted to higher education. This body had ceased to exist legally in 1850, but the idea of the "university," as personifying the instruction given by the state, as opposed to that of the Church, still remained in the public mind. The establishment of French universities, in the modern sense of the term, would necessarily imply the abandoning by the state of a certain number of its present functions, which would be entrusted to academic bodies possessing a certain autonomy.

In 1885, previous to the above-mentioned reforms, the Minister of Public Instruction, in a circular addressed to the faculties, asked for an answer to the question, "Should the faculties be grouped in universities, analogous to those existing in foreign countries?" Although the majority answered in the affirmative, no law to this effect has yet been enacted. The difficulty attending such a radical reform arises from the fact that the feeling of academic solidarity is absent, and, furthermore, that of the fifteen groups of faculties (exclusive of the group of Algiers) only six possess the four Faculties—Medicine, Law, Letters and Sciences—seven possessing three, and the remainder but two. It would

be necessary, therefore, in order to complete the others, to found twelve new faculties, ten of Medicine and two of Law, which would involve great difficulties, as the cities where they would have to be established do not offer the conditions necessary to their success.

#### THE FACULTIES OF LAW.

Although the administrative reforms which have been accomplished are, perhaps, greater in the Faculties of Letters and Sciences, the changes relating to the curriculum are undoubtedly greater in the Faculties of Law. These changes, while in appearance less important than those effected in the other faculties, are really more significant, owing to the obstacles which had to be surmounted in making a body of jurists, tenacious of their traditions, consent to include in the program of instruction subjects which are not absolutely indispensable to a legal training. In order to understand the condition of the law schools previous to the reforms to be described, it is necessary to go back to the time of the First Empire, when these, as well as the other faculties, were considered as organs of the government. This is illustrated by one of Napoleon's decrees, which reads :

"All the schools of the Imperial university will take as the basis of their instruction :

"1st. The precepts of the Catholic religion.

"2d. Fidelity to the Emperor, to the Imperial Monarchy, depository of the happiness of the people, and the Napoleonic Dynasty, guardian of the unity of France and of all the liberal ideas proclaimed by the constitution.

"3d. Obedience to the academic statutes whose object is to insure the uniformity of instruction, and which tend to create citizens attached to their religion, to their sovereign, to their country, and to their family."

In connection with this narrow conception of their role, another, and equally powerful, cause was at work tending to limit the field of activity of the law schools, and to suppress any instruction which appeared to deviate from the



prescribed paths of commentary and exegesis. This was the codification of the French law. The almost inevitable consequence of a written and codified law is to transform the law schools into professional instead of scientific schools, devoted solely to preparation for judicial functions. Furthermore, it soon engenders a certain feeling of reverence on the part of the professors, who accustom themselves to regard a code as something sacred and final. In this way arose that narrow and unscientific method of legal education, which, taking the laws as they are written, comments upon the text, without pointing out its underlying principles, which banishes the idea of historical development from that commentary, which sacrifices the theoretical to the practical point of view, and which regards as a heresy the criticism of the economic and moral value of a law or of its philosophical significance. In short, the lecture courses in a French law school, until within recent years, had in view the legal *art* to the exclusion of the *science*. The whole problem is here involved of the position which a law school is destined to occupy in the higher education of a country, and this, in its turn, depends, to a certain extent, upon the method of recruitment in the public administration. Viewed strictly from this point of view, and leaving aside, for the moment, the question of the advantages of a liberal education for all members of the legal profession, the conditions in France differ from those in America. Of the fourteen hundred students in law, graduated each year, hardly a third are admitted to the bar or enter the magistracy. The majority seek public or administrative careers. As a result, the Faculties of Law, while they have for their principal function the preparation for the bar, cannot confine themselves entirely to subjects strictly necessary in order to plead before the courts. It is, therefore, by no means a matter of indifference whether a student arrives at the end of his course with some knowledge of the political and economic sciences. In any case, a law course should be less an apprenticeship to a trade than a scientific training which leads to the liberal

professions, enabling the lawyer to place himself, at times, above the text of the law, and to consider its importance and its effects from a point of view other than the purely interpretative. The different Ministries of Public Instruction, especially since that of M. Duruy, have not failed to recognize this fact, as we shall have occasion to show. The reforms which have tended to counterbalance the exclusively practical tendencies of the law schools have been the introduction of the History of Law, of Political Economy, and of International Law into the program of studies. Nevertheless, we may say that the reforms have only begun in this respect. The next few years will undoubtedly witness a steady continuation of this movement, which will unite with the interpretation of the written law the advantages of a training in political and economic science.

#### POLITICAL ECONOMY.

The introduction of Political Economy in the curriculum of the law schools was long delayed. In 1863, a delegation headed by MM. Hippolyte Passy and Charles Renouard asked M. Duruy, then Minister of Public Instruction, to found a chair of Political Economy in each of the law schools. In a decree of the following year such a chair was established in the Faculty of Law in Paris, on which occasion the Minister confessed that "Political Economy is not represented in our national education, it has not a single chair in the *Departments*." Strange as it may seem, those words remained true until the decree of March 26, 1877, which prescribed instruction in Political Economy in each of the Law Faculties of France. It must not be thought that this innovation was allowed to pass in silence. On the contrary, it formed for a long time a subject of dispute. A number of the most eminent French economists, headed by M. Courcelle-Seneuil, argued that the legal mind, which was accustomed to attach itself to a text, could never properly treat a science of observation. It must be remembered that the method of selecting the professors from among the

graduates called to these chairs men who had received a purely legal training. Another party of jurists attacked the introduction of Political Economy, on the ground that no such science existed. As one of them expressed it, "There everything is subject to the fancy of the professor. Each one constructs his own system. Political Economy is, at the most, a conjectural art." Notwithstanding these pessimistic predictions, the short time which has elapsed since the introduction of this subject has been sufficient to produce the most satisfactory results. They have been too well described by Professor Gide in the *Political Science Quarterly*,\* to require repetition here. The introduction of Political Economy into the Law Faculties has had its effect upon the other portions of the legal instruction. Economic studies, the economic analysis of a law, require the professor to seek another standpoint than the mere text itself. He is required to trace and justify the underlying principles; to unite the idea of public utility with that of legal interpretation. He can no longer treat the ideas of testament and contract, of marriage and succession, of property, of the family, as having for a basis "the formulæ written by an emperor or by a legislative assembly;" in a word, he must develop each topic with the aid of the most recent researches in the science, as opposed to the art of law, "which, like all other sciences meriting the name, must remain living and progressive." The instruction in Political Economy has been placed in the first year of the course, thus forming the logical continuation of the philosophical studies which occupy the student towards the close of his courses in the *Lycées* or *Collèges*, institutions of secondary instruction, occupying the same position as the German *gymnasia*.

#### HISTORY OF LAW.

It was not until 1880 that this subject was placed in the regular curriculum of the law schools. Up to that time a

\* December, 1890.

few privileged faculties offered courses upon this subject, but even these courses were limited to those who wished to take the degree of Doctor of Laws. Thus the large majority of students were entirely ignorant of the history of their national law. Wolowski very well defined the importance of this subject when he said, "The contempt," to which might be added the ignorance, "of the past is closely allied to the passion for sudden reforms, the result of which is to destroy, where it ought to transform."

#### INTERNATIONAL LAW,

The codification of the French law, and the excessive importance attached to it, which reduced the legal science to the explanation of the texts, proved itself an obstacle to the introduction of instruction in International Law in the French law schools. It was not until 1888 that the Houses of Parliament voted twelve thousand francs for the organization of courses in Public International Law in the Law Faculties. A decree of the 24th of July, 1889, placed this subject on the regular program of studies. At the beginning of that year there were only two courses of International Law, one at the Faculty of Law, in Paris, the other at *École Libre des Sciences Politiques*, but, thanks to the subsidies voted by the municipalities of Lyons, Lille, and Nancy, these faculties were enabled to establish courses of the same nature.

#### PHILOSOPHY OF LAW.

This subject, which has been very well described as the synthesis of the three preceding sciences, has recently been added to the curriculum of the law schools.

#### THE REFORM OF THE "LICENCE EN DROIT."

During recent years the Ministers of Public Instruction have been occupied with projects for the reform of the *Licence en Droit*, i. e., the degree given by the Faculties of Law, preparatory to admission to the bar. One of the most

important of these projects was that contained in the ministerial circular of M. Lockroy, submitted to the examination of the rectors of the "Academies" and the Faculties of Law. His object was to reduce the time occupied by the purely legal instruction in the program of studies, in order to accord at least an equally important place to the administrative, economic, financial, and political sciences. This would naturally change the character of the law schools, transforming them, to a certain extent, into schools of political science, preparatory to entrance into the public administration, or to a public career. In view of the great number of law students who choose these professions, it cannot be denied that one of the essential functions of the law schools should be to prepare these for their after career. Although several steps were taken during the college year 1890-91 towards the realization of M. Lockroy's object, a great deal yet remains to be done.

#### THE REFORM OF THE "AGRÉGATION DE DROIT."

The *agrégation* is the highest degree conferred by the faculty. As it is exclusively from among those who have taken it, the *agrégés*, as they are called, that the faculties choose their professors, the importance of the prescribed studies, for those preparing themselves for this degree, can easily be seen. The 2d of February of this year (1891) the "Higher Council of Public Instruction" voted a project for the reform of the *agrégation*. The characteristic feature of this reform is to introduce into the program of the competitive examinations the following subjects: Criminal, Constitutional, Administrative, and International Law, the History of Law, and Political Economy. The faculties would thus be able to choose their professors in the political sciences from among those who had applied themselves to subjects other than French civil and Roman law.

Although the full effects of these reforms will not be felt until the opening of the college year 1891-92, they are already apparent, not only in the list of the courses them-

selves, but also in the spirit of the instruction given at the law schools, even in the branches which used to be treated from a purely legal standpoint. We can only heartily echo the sentiment of M. Bourgeois, the present Minister of Public Instruction, who, in his ministerial circular of February, 1891, said: "I have the utmost confidence that the new disposition of the legal, historical, social and economic studies, which will henceforth be so intimately united, will have the most salutary effects."

INSTRUCTION IN THE POLITICAL SCIENCES IN INSTITUTIONS OTHER THAN THE LAW SCHOOLS.

*The Collège de France.*

This was founded by Francis I, who wished to have a higher institution of learning, where the sciences which did not find their place in what was then the Faculty of Arts, would receive sufficient attention. The circumstances which attended its establishment having greatly changed, this institution occupies to-day a position peculiar to itself. Enjoying an almost absolute freedom as to the choice of subjects of instruction and methods of administration, it devotes itself to instruction in the different sciences and to scientific research. As it gives no degrees, and thus presents no very definite aim to those who attend the lectures, the courses draw comparatively few students in the real sense of the word. In winter, quite a large number of auditors are not infrequently attracted through curiosity to see a celebrated professor, or by the comfortable warmth of the lecture room. Thus, at almost every lecture of M. Ernest Renan, one may see a number of persons, generally strangers, enter, remain about a quarter of an hour, during which time they take a good look at the lecturer, and then file out with more or less noise. All this is not conducive to purely scientific instruction, and the professor soon sees himself forced, in order not to speak before empty benches, to resort to every kind of artifice to make his lectures interesting and amusing.

It was at the *Collège de France* that the first courses in political economy were given. The first professor to occupy the chair was Michel Chevalier. In 1848, when the question of transforming the *Collège* into a School of Administration was discussed, it was proposed to suppress this chair, and institute five others in its place, a change which, however, was never accomplished. The names of these five chairs were to be: (1) Economics and Statistics of Population; (2) Economics and Statistics of Agriculture; (3) Economics and Statistics of Public Works; (4) Economics and Statistics of Mines, Arts, and Manufactories; (5) Economics and Statistics of Finance and Commerce.

The reasons given were as follows: "As to Political Economy, the opinion of the Commission is, that while each student might study this subject in text books, it should have no place in an official curriculum." The Commission was furthermore of the opinion that "Political Economy, consisting of disputed systems, without any fixity, would present a certain danger, of attaching young minds to some one of these systems, and that the veritable Political Economy, being nothing other than the science of politics and administration, the proposed course ought to be sufficient." The chair of Political Economy is to-day occupied by M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu. The professors of the *Collège de France* possess an almost absolute freedom in the choice of their subjects, and at times the relation between the name of the chair and the subjects treated is somewhat difficult to discover.

#### THE ÉCOLE LIBRE DES SCIENCES POLITIQUES.\*

An examination of the courses in political science in the different classes of French schools, shows that the School of Political Science is the only one which offers anything approaching complete instruction in these branches. The

\* *École Libre* means a school which, founded by private individuals or corporations, is distinct from the schools which depend upon the State and are under its direct supervision. It is free from direct governmental control.

very fact of the sterility of the state schools and faculties in this respect, favored the success and remarkable growth of this school. It was founded in 1871 by MM. Boutmy and Binet. At that period, as we have already had occasion to show, there existed nowhere in France any regularly organized instruction in political science. This want was all the more keenly felt because of the organization of the French Civil Service, the entrance to which is determined by means of competitive examinations. There existed, it is true, a School of Administration, but it offered only a small portion of the advantages to be found to-day at the School of Political Sciences. Viewed from an exclusively practical standpoint, the school prepares for the different branches of public administration. For this purpose the courses are divided into five sections :

- (1) Administrative Section.
- (2) Diplomatic Section.
- (3) Economic and Financial Section.
- (4) Colonial Section.
- (5) Section of History and Public Law.

The courses are arranged so as to enable those attending the law school to enter one of the sections of the school as well. The courses extend over a period of two years. They are numerous, and cover the whole field of political science. Nevertheless, the small number of hours given to each subject often causes the student to leave with only a very imperfect knowledge of some of the most important branches.

The School of Political Sciences at Paris offers one of the most interesting and important examples of systematic instruction in these branches. The rapid transformations which the Law Faculties are undergoing, the ever-increasing importance given to political science in their curriculums, will, no doubt, materially affect its position and progress. But whatever its future may be, it will always remain one of the monuments to French private initiative.



## COURSES GIVEN BY THE SOCIETY OF SOCIAL ECONOMY.

This society, founded by Frédéric Le Play, gives each year a number of courses, inspired by the doctrines of the society. Many of these courses consist in the presentation of family or trade monographs, for the basis of Le Play's method is the observation and study, in the form of monographs, of particular families, taken as types of a social group. The course of M. Du Maroussem, recently given under the auspices of the society, at the Law Faculty, deserves special mention. It was a minute description of the furniture industry of Paris, in which he traced its history, its methods of work, the relation between employer and workmen, the commercial crises to which it has been subjected, the reforms necessary in order to better the condition of the workmen, in short, a complete picture of this Parisian industry. The previous year he had pursued the same method of observation and exposition in the case of the carpentry industry.

## COURSES IN THE CATHOLIC FACULTIES.

We merely wish to recall here the fact that courses in political economy are given in the four Catholic Faculties of Law in Paris, Lille, Angers, and Lyons, by MM. Claudio Jannet, Béchaux, Baugas and Rambaud, respectively.

## THE CONSERVATORY OF ARTS AND TRADE.

The courses of Political and Social Economy given at this institution deserve special attention because of their popular character. The chair of Political Economy and Industrial Legislation is occupied by M. Émile Levasseur, that of Industrial Economy and Statistics, by M. De Foville. Two courses, of two hours a week each, are given by these gentlemen in the evening. These are largely attended by the working classes, and in general by those who are occupied during the day. The course of M. Levasseur is divided into five parts, which are treated during five consecutive years. Thus, during the college year 1885-86 he began

with the subject, "The Consumption of Wealth," followed in 1886-87 by "Industrial Legislation"; 1887-88, "The Production of Wealth"; 1888-89, "The Distribution of Wealth"; 1889-90, "Exchange of Wealth." In 1890-91, he recommenced the series with "The Consumption of Wealth," which he treated in the following order :

"Productive and unproductive consumption—Economy and the Savings Banks—Capital and its functions—Costs of public instruction—Personal consumption—Luxury—Insurance—Bankruptcy—Consumption of the State, budget, taxes—Population; births, deaths, marriages, emigration, increase—Relation existing between population and wealth."

M. de Foville, whose course extends over the same length of time, chose the following subjects during the five years beginning with 1885-86: "The Equipment of Human Industry," "The Effects of Human Industry," "Labor and Its Laws," "The International Exposition" (chosen because of the Exposition at Paris in 1889), "Ways and Means of Transportation."

These courses are adapted in an admirable manner to the intellectual standard of the audience. They are models of economic instruction for the masses. The economic significance of many of the more obvious elements of social and industrial life are brought home to the listeners; entire lectures being devoted to such topics as the Savings Bank, Failures and Bankruptcy, Drunkenness, Insurance, the Personal Consumption of the Workingman, etc.

#### UNIVERSITY STATISTICS.

Having given a general idea of the method and scope of instruction in the French "Faculties," it seems advisable to complete these observations with some statistical notes. In this part of our investigation we have made use of the *Statistique de l'Enseignement Supérieur*, published decennially by the Ministry of Public Instruction since 1868. These publications have greatly contributed to the improve-

ment of the condition of the faculties by bringing to the notice of the authorities and the public their needs and defects. The most superficial examination of the statistics of 1868 suffice to show the vices of the organization of the faculties at that time—the limited numbers of chairs, the lack of students in the Faculties of Letters and Sciences, the deplorable condition of the libraries. The first publication of the “Statistics” served to open the eyes of the government to the exigencies of the situation, and, as a result, the statistics of 1878 show a much more satisfactory condition—the effects of reforms were already apparent. Nevertheless, the progress had been exceedingly slow, compared with that accomplished between 1878 and 1889. The difficulties were increased by the fact that between these two dates there had been thirteen different Ministers of Public Instruction who were at the same time Grand Masters of the University. As regards the financial situation of the faculties, we find that the gross expenses have been as follows :

|                |                   |
|----------------|-------------------|
| 1835 . . . . . | 2,004,623 francs. |
| 1877 . . . . . | 5,113,880 “       |
| 1879 . . . . . | 8,625,330 “       |
| 1884 . . . . . | 11,652,355 “      |
| 1887 . . . . . | 11,500,000 “      |

In 1887 the receipts\* for immatriculation and examination fees amounted to 4,700,000 francs. The only faculties whose expenses and receipts balance are the Faculty of Letters, of Rennes, and the Faculty of Law, of Paris. In 1887 the receipts of the latter exceeded the expenses by 454,326 francs. It is to be borne in mind that we are only considering the expenses of the faculties, which would be greatly increased if we included all the higher special schools. As to the number of students, we find that in 1875, 9963 students were regularly immatricu-

\* It is to be remarked that the lectures (with the exception of the conferences) are free, but if one desires to take a degree, the fees amount to 120 francs a year for registration at the Faculties of Law. The examination fees amount to 180 to 280 francs at the Faculty of Law at Paris.

lated in the faculties of France. In 1888 the number reached 17,503; that is, almost twice as many. The greatest progress in this respect is in the Faculties of Letters and of Sciences. In 1878, the date of the publication of the general statistics, the Faculties of Law and Medicine were the only ones that possessed regular students. The Faculties of Sciences and Letters had to depend upon the general public to

NUMBER OF IMMATRICULATED STUDENTS IN THE  
FACULTIES OF

|  | Law.  | Medicine<br>and<br>Pharmacy. | Sciences. | Letters. | Total.  |
|--|-------|------------------------------|-----------|----------|---------|
| Paris . . . . .  | 2,300 | 5,135                        | 449       | 1,171    | 9,055   |
| Toulouse . . . . .   | 727   | 306                          | 101       | 97       | 1,231   |
| Bordeaux . . . . .   | 268   | 544                          | 81        | 136      | 1,029   |
| Lyons . . . . .  | 281   | 544                          | 46        | 91       | 962     |
| Montpellier . . . . .  | 256   | 494                          | 67        | 73       | 890     |
| Lille . . . . .  | 118   | 299                          | 139       | 156      | 712     |
| Caen . . . . .   | 191   | 52                           | 62        | 157      | 462     |
| Nancy . . . . .  | 137   | 175                          | 59        | 83       | 454     |
| Aix-Marseilles . . . . .   | 181   | 153                          | 49        | 50       | 433     |
| Rennes . . . . .   | 215   | 94                           | 49        | 68       | 426     |
| Grenoble . . . . .   | 127   | 48                           | 57        | 86       | 318     |
| Poitiers . . . . .   | 143   | 41                           | 35        | 57       | 276     |
| Dijon . . . . .  | 107   | 59                           | 36        | 34       | 236     |
| Besancon . . . . .   | . . . | 45                           | 44        | 41       | 130     |
| Clermont . . . . .   | . . . | 41                           | 35        | 20       | 96      |
| Algiers . . . . .  | 101   | 58                           | 26        | 38       | 223     |
| Schools of Medicine and Pharmacy of Amiens, Angers, Limoges, Nantes, Rheims, Rouen, Tours. } | . . . | 57                           |           |          | 57      |
| Total . . . . .  | 5,152 | 8,715*                       | 1,335     | 2,358    | 17,503* |

follow its courses. In 1879 commenced the formation of regular groups of immatriculated students at the Faculties of

\*[A discrepancy is observable in the footing of the column of figures relating to the medical students and a corresponding one in the "total." We were not, however, in a position to correct the error, owing to the want of necessary material.—THE EDITORS.]

Sciences and Letters of Paris, Lyons, Bordeaux, and Montpellier. In 1888 the total number of students in all these faculties was 3693, of whom 1620 were at Paris. Of these 2358 belonged to the Faculties of Letters and 1335 to the Faculties of Sciences. The success of this movement, which was stigmatized by many as the Germanization of the faculties, is partly due to the establishment of paying scholarships. Thus, of the 3700 immatriculated students in the Faculties of Sciences and of Letters, 620 enjoyed, in 1888, the use of paying scholarships. As the foregoing table will show, the Faculties of Medicine lead the list with 8715 immatriculated students, of whom over 5000 are at the Faculty of Paris. The Faculties of Law follow with 5152 students, of whom 2300 are at Paris. In this table we have omitted the 127 students at the Protestant theological faculties of Paris and Mantauban, as well as the students of the Catholic faculties.

As to the number of foreign students, they are to be found almost exclusively at Paris, where they form a very considerable proportion : 12 per cent. at the Faculty of Medicine, 8 per cent. at the Faculty of Letters, 7 per cent. at the Faculty of Law, and 1.2 per cent. at the School of Pharmacy. Considering all the faculties of France for the moment, we find that, whereas in 1868 there were only 500 immatriculated foreign students, which number was reduced to almost zero after the war of 1870-71, the year 1891 found 1192 foreign students immatriculated, of which more than one thousand were at Paris. The nations sending the largest contingents are as follows :

|                         |     |                       |    |
|-------------------------|-----|-----------------------|----|
| Russia . . . . .        | 278 | Spain . . . . .       | 45 |
| United States . . . . . | 169 | Switzerland . . . . . | 44 |
| Roumania . . . . .      | 154 | Bulgaria . . . . .    | 34 |
| Turkey . . . . .        | 123 | Servia . . . . .      | 33 |
| England . . . . .       | 72  | Italy . . . . .       | 22 |
| Egypt . . . . .         | 56  | Portugal . . . . .    | 19 |
| Greece . . . . .        | 54  | Germany . . . . .     | 19 |

They are divided amongst the following faculties :

|                    |     |                    |    |
|--------------------|-----|--------------------|----|
| Theology . . . . . | 4   | Sciences . . . . . | 85 |
| Law . . . . .      | 204 | Letters . . . . .  | 37 |
| Medicine . . . . . | 862 |                    |    |

If the statistics we have given tend to show anything, it is the altogether disproportionate position occupied by the faculties of Paris as compared with those of the provinces. The former include about two-thirds of all the students, which explains, to some extent, the intellectual and material stagnation of so many of the latter. From 1825 to 1880 the budget of the four great faculties of Paris (Medicine, Law, Letters, and Sciences) has been increased from 709,381 francs to 2,256,340 francs. The number of chairs has increased as follows: The Faculty of Sciences, which possessed 12 chairs in 1810, has to-day 19, or, including the "Masters of Conference,"\* 27; the Faculty of Letters, had 3 chairs in 1809, 11 in 1855, and 16 in 1880, or, including the complementary courses and conferences, 26; the Faculty of Law possessed 5 chairs in 1804, and 21 in 1880, with 5 "Masters of Conference;" the Faculty of Medicine, which had 20 professors in 1794, has to-day 33.

### *Conclusion.*

Three classes of institutions for higher instruction can be distinguished in France to-day: 1st. The faculties, which composed the former university—theology, law, medicine, sciences, letters, and the higher schools of pharmacy. 2d. Independent institutions devoted to the study of special branches of science, or to general intellectual culture, such as the *Collège de France*, the Practical School of Higher Branches of Learning, the Observatories, the National Museum of Natural History. 3d. Special schools, such as the Higher Normal School, the *École des Chartes*, the School

\* The conference in a French faculty is a course of lectures reserved for the immatriculated students and in which the instructor sometimes questions the students.

of Oriental Languages, the Schools at Athens, Rome, and Cairo, which prepare for scientific, literary, or artistic careers.

We have endeavored to trace the reforms in the different faculties ; to show how the Faculties of Letters and Sciences have completely changed their organization ; how the law schools have introduced the political sciences and been gradually transformed from purely professional schools of jurisprudence into institutions which furnish instruction in political economy, as well as commercial, international, administrative, and constitutional law.

Comparisons with the institutions of other nations we have carefully avoided, because of the great difficulty of establishing a satisfactory criterion. A comparison of the French with the German universities, for instance, would be, for several reasons, unfair to France. In the first place, the organization of secondary instruction in Germany is not the same as that in France. In Germany the secondary instruction is considered, for the most part, as preparatory to entrance to the university ; while in France the secondary instruction was organized at a time when, with the exception of the professional studies of law and medicine, there existed nothing which corresponds to the higher instruction of the present day. As a result, we find quite a number of branches, such as philosophy, certain portions of physics, and chemistry, entering into the secondary instruction in France which do not find their place in the faculties. Furthermore, the French faculties, especially of Letters and Sciences, must compete with the special schools, which often brings about a dispersion of intellectual forces.

As to the number of students, it must also be remembered that in France the theological students, with the exception of about 125 in Protestant theology, are educated in the Catholic theological seminaries under the supervision and direction of the church and completely separated from the state, and thus from the faculties. Germany, on the con-

trary, possesses in its state universities some six thousand students in theology.

Without attempting in the least to belittle the extraordinary progress made by the German universities, which has placed them at the head of almost all that pertains to intellectual culture, it is not to be denied that the great interest which France has taken during recent years in her higher institutions of learning, the immense sacrifices which she has made for them, and the important reforms accomplished in the organization of the faculties, bid fair to re-establish for her institutions their former reputation. There is no doubt that the passage of the bill reconstructing regional universities will contribute materially to this end by infusing new life into the faculties of the provinces, and thus reducing the preponderating and all-absorbing influence of Paris.

LIST OF INSTRUCTORS IN POLITICAL SCIENCE AND  
PUBLIC LAW IN THE VARIOUS INSTITUTIONS  
OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

PARIS.—MM. Beauregard, Esmein, Larnaude, Renault, Ducrocq, Leveillé, Michel, Jalabert, Cauwès, Chavegrin, Alglave, Boistel, Girard.

LYONS.—MM. Rougier, Leseur, Énou, Audibert, Sauzet.

BORDEAUX.—MM. Saint-Marc, Vigneaux, Duguit, Barckhausen, Despagne, Faure, Durckheim, De la Tour, Jullian, Gebelin.

MONTPELLIER.—MM. Gide, Meynial, Gérard, Brémont, Barde, Laborde.

NANCY.—MM. Garnier, Gavet, Liégeois, Blondel, Lombard.

GRENOBLE.—MM. Jay, Rambaud, Pillet, Michoud, Testoud, Beaudouin, Balleydier.

LILLE.—MM. Deschamps, Jacquy, Bourguin, Garçon.

DIJON.—MM. Mongin, Saleilles, Gaudemet, Weiss.

RENNES.—MM. Worms, Chenon, Marie, Blondel.

TOULOUSE.—MM. Arnault, Despiau, Hauriou, Timbal, Brissaud, De Boeck, Deloume.

POITIERS.—MM. Brissonet, Didier, Biville, Barrilleau, Le Courtois.

CAEN.—MM. Villey, Colin, Toutain, Jouen.

AIX.—MM. Al. Jourdain, Gautier, Bouvier-Bangillon, Ed. Jourdain.

ALGIERS.—MM. Colin, Estoublon.



COLLEGE DE FRANCE.—MM. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, Flach, Levasseur.  
SORBONNE.—M. Pigeonneau.

SCHOOL OF ROADS AND BRIDGES.—MM. Baudrillart, Margnerie.

CONSERVATORY OF ARTS AND TRADES.—MM. De Foville, Levasseur.

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE.—MM. Lecouteaux, Gauvain,  
Chevallier.

NATIONAL SCHOOL OF MINES.—MM. Cheysson, Aguillon.

NATIONAL SCHOOL OF ARCHIVES.—MM. Géry, Roy.

HIGHER NORMAL SCHOOL.—M. Courcelle-Seneuil.

SCHOOL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE (École libre des sciences politiques).

—MM. Le Vavasseur de Précourt, Alix, Stourm, Cheysson, Le-  
bon, Gaidoz, Sorel, Levy-Bruhl, Funck-Brentano, Renault, Niox,  
Levasseur, Arnaune, Cordier, Flach, Levy, Monod, Ponsard.

SOCIETY OF SOCIAL ECONOMY.—MM. Maroussem, Béchaux, Guérin.

SCHOOL OF HIGHER COMMERCIAL STUDIES.—MM. Letort, Renault,  
Lyon-Caen, Passy, Blade.

HIGHER SCHOOL OF COMMERCE.—MM. Ameline de la Briselaine,  
Dhombres.

SCHOOL OF COMMERCE.—M. Letort.

SCHOOL OF ANTHROPOLOGY.—MM. Letourneau, De Martillet.

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